

The Citizen

Published Monthly by

The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching.

10 Cents a Copy.

Philadelphia, June, 1895.

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The Citizen

Vol. I. June, 1895. No. 4.

The office of THE CITIZEN is at 111 South Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

THE CITIZEN is published on the first day of each month.

All communications should be addressed to the Editor of THE CITIZEN.

Remittances by check or postal money order should be made payable to Frederick B. Miles, Treasurer.

Advertising rates furnished upon application.

Entered, Philadelphia Post-office, as second-class matter.

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Life and Education.

The name of Dr. Edmund J. James has become so identified with University Extension in this country that his retirement from the Presidency of the American Society is a matter of public concern.

He was one of those who conducted the Society through its first years and the experimental stages of its development. He gave to its service the energy and organizing capacity which have characterized his activities in other fields. We are happy to be able to say that Dr. James, although compelled by the pressure of other duties to relinquish the detail of active management to other hands, will

remain upon the Board of Directors and continue to give the Society, in which his interest is unabated, his support and counsel.

The recommendation of the Principal of the Philadelphia Normal School that the building and equipment of that institution should be utilized by teachers for graduate courses in such suitable hours as are not occupied by its ordinary work is a new indication of the growing conviction that, in a business sense, we have not made the most of our educational facilities.

The wisdom of economizing capital by keeping it constantly employed is a commonplace of industry, but in educational administration the idea is novel and makes way slowly. First of all, it runs counter to a public opinion, which in many places has been crystalized into a law, that school buildings should be utilized only for "school purposes." If other purposes are worthy, and especially if they are educational, why should not the community use its buildings to promote these purposes? It is better that a school building should stand idle than that it should be used as a theatre, dance hall, or show house, when the community is otherwise supplied with such places of public amusement; there is no reasonable objection to its use under proper conditions for such purposes as public lectures by high school or university teachers, or for evening reading rooms and branch libraries, or any other purpose that is directly in line with the civic improvement for which the public school system is itself established.

Rules which prevent the use of the school buildings for such purposes were presumably framed in the fear that directors or others, to whom the care of the building is entrusted, would be unable to prevent an improper use of the buildings. If there was ever justification for this fear it no longer exists. Directors and principals are naturally conservative, and where they are entrusted with discretionary power in such matters they seldom abuse it. The community in withholding such power

deprives itself of a profitable and wholly commendable use of its own property.

In order, however, to carry out effectively the recommendation to which reference has been made, something else than buildings and equipments are essential. Teachers will not find it profitable to pursue graduate courses, unless the instruction offered is in character with university instruction. When a college becomes a university, using both words in their strict sense, it adds to its faculty men whose abilities, tastes, and preparation fit them for advanced instruction. Occasionally instructors are found who are successful both with university students and college classes, but a university which does not have in its corps teachers who are specialists in university teaching is still a university in name only. It is probable that for many years the normal schools will not be in a position to offer work of this advanced sort, and perhaps it is not yet desirable that they should undertake it. The important work of fitting young girls to begin their work as teachers is so distinct from the task of giving to mature teachers opportunities for professional study and special research that their higher instruction may well be left to institutions which are equipped for that particular purpose. The university which is now to be found in nearly every one of the larger centres of population has already experienced the revolution of which public school administration is beginning to feel the approach. The buildings, equipment, and the instructors of the universities are already available for evening and Saturday courses and for summer vacation work. Here is a very good opportunity for teachers wishing to do advanced work to get systematic instruction and the advantages of contact with trained minds.

The need of a revised school law for the city of Philadelphia is generally admitted. The system of dual control has been tried long enough to exhibit its total unfitness to serve the real interests of popular education.

Politicians have used the sectional boards to gratify petty ambitions, and for the distribution of patronage; little men have used

them as opportunities for small speculations, and the selection of teachers under this system has been in many instances in the hands of people who had no qualifications for such a task beyond those of the average citizen. The average citizen is not competent even to select a teacher for his own children. The education of a child is not the concern of its parents only; the whole community has an interest to be guarded in the education of its every prospective member. Teaching is the most delicate of the arts, and those who are selected to practice it should be chosen by educational experts.

Let us suppose that the city were to receive a legacy of \$1,000,000 for the purchase of pictures for a public gallery. It would not be less sane to confide the duty of buying the pictures to persons chosen at the primary elections than to allow the Directors of the Sectional school boards to choose teachers. We should all agree—provided the world were so reconstructed that there was no possibility that any one could make any money or get any other advantage out of the buying—that the pictures should be selected by a few or one of the persons in Philadelphia knowing most about the art of painting and its relation to public taste and public morals. The same principle should govern in the choice of persons to appoint teachers. A single directing body can and should choose with requisite care, from among trained men, a school superintendent and assistants competent to select teachers and to supervise their work. No other scheme has been devised which has answered so well as this in practice, and no other plan conforms so well to the theories of those who have studied the subject of school management.

It is not necessary to argue at length that there would be economy in one central administration instead of a central board and thirty-seven other boards, all trying to do the work of the former in their own way rather than in its way. We might as well expect economy with one board of public works located at the City Hall, and other boards of public works in every ward laying water pipes and running sewers each on its own account and independent of the City Hall people and of each

other. Divided authority and unfixed responsibility will ruin a private business. Why in public affairs should we expect a different result from these mistakes of management?

The Porter bill now before the House of Representatives at Harrisburg proposes to vest the control of public education in Philadelphia in one central board of twenty-one persons. So far so good. The members, by the terms of the bill, are to be appointed by the judges. This imposes no new duty upon the bench, because it now appoints the members of the present central Board, thirty-seven in number; but it is a question whether imposing extra-judicial duties upon the judges is not altogether bad in theory, and has not proved dangerous in practice. Mistrustful of politicians and of the nominating machinery, the people have turned to a trusted judiciary and given it patronage and powers foreign to its proper functions, until it is becoming so entangled as to be in danger from the very confidence its high character created. When we come to corruption of the courts we arrive at the last stage of political degradation. The last makeshift for popular sovereignty has been exhausted and we have to ask the people to take a little time from private concerns to put the public premises in order. If the judges are not to appoint, shall the Mayor choose the school directors, or shall they be elected by wards or on a general ticket? In answering we have to do not with a theory based upon ideal conditions, but with facts as they exist, and with the experience we have suffered. If the wards will not send better men to Councils, which manage so much of the public business and spend so much of the public money, and will not put better men and women upon the sectional boards, why should we expect them to do better in choosing the members of a single central board? We can not expect it. Every man who has given any attention to public affairs as exhibited in Philadelphia knows that nothing short of a change of heart and habits, which it is silly to look for in any brief term of years, would make it possible.

If the directors are to be elected upon a general ticket, they must be put in nomina-

tion by some one or some persons; in Philadelphia this means, ordinarily, that the ticket prepared by the Republican party will be the ticket elected. This brings us to the primaries, which are fine in theory, but in practice do as the leaders direct. In other words, election by a general ticket means selection by the party leaders. We are, therefore, finally brought to face the issue: Is it better to trust the leaders, who are not elected and not responsible to any one, or the Mayor, who is elected with some deference to public opinion, and is a responsible officer, with a career to be damned if he trifles with so vital a trust as the appointment of those who administer the school system? The time may come when it will be well to elect the school directors, and we cannot but feel that it would be better that they should be now elected, on a general ticket, than that the present system should be continued; but has that time come yet? We think not, in Philadelphia; and if it is ever to come it must be chiefly by means of better schools, in which children shall not only be taught to do sums, but shall be taught to think, taught their public duty, and taught the difference between political knavery and political honesty, between serving the public and plundering the public. It was a pitiful sight on the evening of May 7, to see a handful of brave women, almost alone, presenting the case for better schools before a committee of the legislature. Where were the men? Were they keeping house? Were they shy about following where women led? On Wednesday evening, May 15, there was another hearing before the committee having the Porter bill in charge. The opponents of the measure were heard, and Mr. E. Clinton Rhoads appeared in behalf of the Civic Club, to advocate its passage. The bill was finally referred to a sub-committee, which means further delay, dangerous to its passage. The present legislature will have some sins to answer for. It would have been wise to balance accounts by giving Philadelphia a better school law.

Some handsome gifts have recently been made to Columbia College. Mr. William C. Schermerhorn, Chairman of the Board of

Trustees, announced that he would be responsible for the erection of a college building at the cost of \$300,000. Mr. F. Augustus Schermerhorn presented the Board with the Townsend Library of National, State, and Individual War Records, together with \$4000 to defray the expense of indexing it. Over-shadowing both these gifts is that of President Low, who, on the same occasion, made a formal offer of \$1,000,000 to be expended in building a college library as a memorial to his father, Abiel Abbot Low.

All these benefits, together with others recently received by the college, have evidently been conferred with the intent to extend and multiply Columbia's powers for good, rather than to enhance the individual reputation of the donors.

And this is as it should be. There has grown up a fashion among rich men, whose egotism is greater than their philanthropy, to endow new colleges, which shall bear their names and glorify themselves. It is a fine thing for a rich man to build himself a monument in the shape of a college; it is gratifying to read about his magnanimity in the newspapers; best of all is it on Founder's day, to make a journey to his college, and receive the homage of faculty and students. All this is a sweet morsel to the great rich man, but what is its effect upon education?

Too often the great man belongs to that worthy but somewhat dangerous type, the "self-made man"; having succeeded so well with himself he is not willing to leave the making of other men to God and approved methods of education; he is sure that he can add some valuable hints. Having built and endowed his college he is not content to submit its administration to skilled educators, but keeps a watchful eye upon it, and assumes personal control of its machinery. Under his supervision his college is hampered, suffocated. High ideals of education cannot thrive in it because they do not accord with the great man's "common sense" view of things.

The plain fact is that there are too many colleges in this country. One is curious to know what that jaded, languid, but wise philosopher, who talked wearily about the

endless making of books, would say if he could come to America to-day and find that in the United States alone there are 451 colleges, so-called.

This is not an attack upon small colleges; much of the best educational work in the country is done in the smaller institutions which permit a closer contact between instructors and students than is possible in the larger universities. But a large proportion of these 451 colleges have no reason for existence except the pride and vain-glory of a religious sect or of a purse-proud man. Many of these announce a standard that is preposterously low, and many more pretend to a standard to which they in no wise attain. Their instructors are incompetent, their methods are antiquated, their students are so taught that it were better they were left untaught, and their whole tendency is to bring such chaos into our educational scheme that the degree of "A. B." has come to have as little significance as the title of "Colonel" in Kentucky.

The moral of the homily is found in our text, the benefits lately conferred upon Columbia. It is far better that a true friend of the higher education should suppress some of his personal ambition and instead of founding new colleges, give to such as are already established, whose usefulness has been tested by actual results. These colleges may be large or small; almost without an exception they are in need of more money.

Progress has been the distinctive mark of Columbia under President Low's administration; more than \$5,000,000 has been added to the college funds; a new site has been secured on Morning side Heights, and here will be built some of the finest academic buildings in the country. With this expansion, however, the College has been developing in other and more important directions; it has been adding to its teaching force from among the best scholars that can be procured.

Adequate buildings, libraries, laboratories, and lecture halls are indispensable educational factors, and where these are wrought out with architectural taste, they possess an inherent power for culture. But it has come to pass

that of late years our American colleges have shown a tendency to emphasize their material resources to the detriment of that which is more important. The degrees of offence in this respect have been many; some of our colleges—particularly the older ones—have only betrayed a slight leaning in this direction, while others have so engrossed themselves with their fine buildings that they seem to have no other conception of education. Brick and mortar is tangible and makes a good “advertisement.”

In a commercial age it is perhaps natural that the colleges themselves should partake of the commercial spirit, but though natural, it is lamentable. To “advertise and hustle” is doubtless a proper policy for a patent medicine company, but it is somewhat out of place in the dispensing of university wares.

Garfield's idea of a college is remote from these modern ideas, but it is nearer the true mark, “a log with a youth at one end and Mark Hopkins at the other.” Men of the Mark Hopkins' stature are a rare product, not to be picked up in every post-graduate school, but an approximation thereto is to be found. Men who approach this type constitute a spiritualizing force, without which costly buildings are like Browning's duke, “Empty and fine like a swordless sheath.”

There is a significance in all this which is easily overlooked. It is not pessimism to say that the eternal battle between the material and the ideal has not yet resulted in a victory for the ideal. Notwithstanding our innumerable societies for the suppression of everything that is bad and for the promotion of everything that is good, the grosser powers of the age seem for the moment to have prevailed.

Instead of falling into step with the materialism and commercialism of the period, our scholars should set their faces resolutely against these powers. They can do this effectually, not by a display of wealth, but by setting over their students teachers who are big enough and wise enough to look beyond the limits of their narrow specialties and discern the true bearing of education upon life. College youths are susceptible as they will never be in later life to ennobling influences. When

they leave the university and rub elbows with the world, they will be compelled to modify some of their highest ideals, for this is one of the grim necessities of life, but they will have within themselves a fixed principle which will resist all the uglier forms of commercialism, and they will have that high and spacious vision which is all that saves life from the aspect of a puppet-show.

It transpires that New York has been paying a heavy price for her street cleaning. Commissioner Waring has reported to the Board of Estimate of the Street Cleaning Department that he apprehends a deficit of \$698,000. This has startled New York, and as *THE CITIZEN* goes to press, the air is thick with rumors, such as that the deficit will prove much larger than the commissioner has reported, and that his resignation will be demanded by Mayor Strong.

We hope that in her fright New York exaggerates her troubles, and that the investigation which is to be made will allay her fears. In the mean time, there is one characteristic of the situation which is worthy of comment. Tammany always held one trump card, the comparatively low tax-rate of the city. No matter how corrupt and incompetent the administration, the reply was always ready, “But see how little it costs you!” After a good many years New York got tired of corruption and incompetence, and last autumn decided to try another sort of government. She is now met with the question whether or not she is willing to pay for this higher grade of article.

Colonel Waring has spent a good deal of money in keeping the streets clean, but he has kept them clean, a thing which hasn't been done before since New York became a city. Whether or not he has been rash in his expenditures is something that cannot be decided until the facts are known.

If upon investigation it is found that New York's streets can't be cleaned for less than has been expended this year, the city had better hold on to Colonel Waring. His method may not be “cheap,” but that is not the single desideratum in municipal administration any more than it is in a winter overcoat.

The Income Tax.

The question of the expediency, justice and constitutionality of the Income Tax has been more thoroughly debated in the United States during the last few months than at any previous period in our history.

It may therefore be of interest at this time to glance at the scientific, practical and legal aspects of the federal income tax provided for in the revenue laws passed by the last Congress.

The term Income Tax, like many similar or related terms, is used in two distinct senses. It may mean a tax which is ultimately paid out of the income of a person as distinguished from his property or capital. Income in this expression is the property or wealth which comes newly into the possession of a person within a fixed period—say a year; and national income is the sum total of increase of wealth of the entire population within such a period. In this sense all permanent taxes are income taxes. It is evident that no general system of taxation could long exist which diminished in its operation the actual capital or wealth in existence in a country at the beginning of each successive year, as this would very soon dry up the very sources on which its fruitfulness depends. From this point of view then a tax on imports is as truly an income tax as any other, since in the last analysis it must be defrayed out of the income of the individual who ultimately bears it, *i. e.*, in general the ultimate consumer; unless he is drawing on his stock of capital or wealth in the regular course of his living, in which case the ordinary man would soon exhaust his resources and become bankrupt.

Against an income tax in this sense, then, there can be no objection; on the contrary, we must maintain that any tax which is not an income tax in this sense is *ipso facto* a bad, and in the long run, an impossible tax.

But the expression income tax is also used in quite a different sense to signify a tax assessed directly against a person in proportion to the income that he has received during the period selected, usually a year. Against such a tax, if it could be equally assessed and collected, there is perhaps as little to be said as against any other possible tax. Nearly all writers on economics and finance have accepted either tacitly or explicitly the income of a person as one of the best tests of his ability to bear taxation, and most of them have held that a proportional income tax, *i. e.*, one taking the same percentage from all incomes, would be from a theoretical point of view an almost ideal tax.

Adam Smith laid down the principle distinctly that ability to bear taxation is in pro-

portion to revenue, and this canon has been endorsed by many writers after him; though he condemns the income tax as it is understood in modern times in severe terms and dismisses it with the briefest mention as if it were an impossible tax unworthy of discussion.

Not long after Adam Smith's time, however, an income tax was introduced into England as a temporary makeshift; but it has increased in popularity until it is now a permanent feature of the English tax system. It has also spread to other countries, notably Germany and Switzerland. In Prussia it has become an indispensable element of the revenue and on the whole is as popular as any other similar tax. In the development of the tax the practice has grown up of exempting a certain minimum of income from the tax, and assessing only the income which exceeds this minimum. The exemption at first was a small one. It now amounts in England to about £500. In some places it seems to have been thought that the ability to bear taxation increases more rapidly than the income. This has led to the adoption of a progressive principle under which the rate increases with the income. Those incomes between \$1000 and \$2000 may, for example, be taxed 1 per cent; those between \$2000 and \$3000, 1½ per cent; those between \$3000 and \$10,000, 2 per cent; those over \$10,000, 3 per cent.

The exemption of a small amount of income—say a sum equal to \$1000, in this country, has been justified by many authorities, though on different grounds. Thus, such a policy may be defended on the ground that the difficulty of collecting the tax from the "small people" is so great that it does not pay for the time and trouble. The experience of Prussia demonstrates very clearly that the expense of collecting the tax from the bulk of the laboring population is so great as to more than equal the receipts and the government has favored the exemption from purely administrative considerations.

Such an exemption may also be favored in any country where the load of so-called indirect taxation—excise and import duties—rests heavily on the commodities used largely by the laboring classes; for in such cases the man of small income contributes relatively more to the revenue than the rich. Thus if tobacco, sugar, tea, coffee, coarse fabrics, provisions, etc., are subject to heavy import or excise duties, the "small man" being obliged to invest nearly all his income in such articles pays a very heavy tax, far exceeding in proportion the tax which a rich man pays ordinarily in the same form, and it is only fair to consider this fact in adjusting the burden of direct taxation.

Economists have also favored such an exemption for the reason advanced by Adam Smith following the Physiocrats, viz.: that an income tax on the laboring population is really an indirect tax; since its only effect in the long run is to raise wages. This proceeds on the assumption that wages are already fixed to correspond to a certain standard of life, below which the laboring population will not go, and if their wages are diminished by a tax their numbers would decrease until the demand for labor would so increase as to cause a rise in wages corresponding to the tax. The burden falls ultimately on the consumer, who has to pay more for his goods owing to their increased cost of production.

This would perhaps be most generally approved in the case of that large class of the laboring population who just manage to keep out of the poor-house, since any diminution of their income by taxation would bring them on the community to that extent.

In spite of this theoretical claim in favor of the income tax, the difficulties in the way of assessing and collecting the tax with any approach to exactness has kept financiers from making the tax in any sense the foundation of a revenue system. They have used it as a supplementary, or rather complementary, tax to equalize the burdens of the revenue system as a whole, and as a sort of balance wheel or governor to adjust the income of the government to the wants of the exchequer. Thus in England the rate has been regularly raised or lowered as it was found necessary to raise more or less revenue, according to the surplus or deficiency of other sources, or to meet a sudden demand for extraordinary outlay.

Our own federal government has no such balance wheel. We provide by law for taxes which sometimes bring in more and sometimes less than is needed. We plunge from surplus to deficiency and from deficiency back to surplus with astonishing frequency, and in such a way as to make any sound or sensible management of national finances almost impossible.

The present or recent Income Tax law of the United States was passed on August 4, 1894. Although it was part of a revenue scheme which was long debated, it evidently did not get that careful attention from experts in financial science or administration which such a law should receive. The result is, from all present indications, that even if we could approve the general principles on which the bill was drafted, it is impossible to agree either with the actual law or any modification of it which administrative officers may be authorized to make. Practically the law is so defective that nothing but a complete re-

construction could make it acceptable to any party.

In the mean time the question has arisen whether the whole act is not null and void because it disregards certain provisions contained in the United States Constitution. This instrument practically prescribes that if the Federal Government wishes to levy a "direct tax" it must first determine the whole amount to be raised and then assign the amount among the different States in proportion to their population. The States may then pay over the amount demanded, raising and collecting it themselves, or the Federal Government may do it directly by its own agents. If the income tax is a "direct tax" it must be so apportioned, and as the law of August 4, 1894, did not provide for this, it is null and void and no tax can be collected under it. If on the other hand the income tax is not a direct tax, but a duty—impost or excise—it must then be "uniform throughout the United States," according to the Constitution, and it is claimed among other things, that the exemption of \$4000 minimum from taxation is a violation of the principle of uniformity, and consequently renders the law null and void. There are other points made in the case, but these are the main contentions of those who hold that this law is invalid.

On the other hand it is argued that this tax is not a direct tax within the sense of the Constitution, since the term is a word of art in that particular connection and means only a general land tax or poll tax. Nor is it necessarily uniform, since it may be neither a direct tax, nor an "impost, duty, or excise," in which case Congress may adopt at its discretion the principle on which it shall be levied. But even if we grant that it is a duty, still it does not violate the principle of "uniformity," since all that that means is that all individuals in the same class must be taxed alike; not that there may not be different classes constituted by the law; and this law divides all taxpayers into two classes, those having an income below \$4000, and those having a larger income than that, but treats all individuals in those classes alike.

The court in the first decision in April of this year adopted the theory that "direct tax" in the Constitution meant a land tax at any rate, but it held, contrary to the tenor of decisions rendered in cases arising out of the law passed during the Civil War, that a tax on the income from rents of real estate is practically a tax on the real estate itself, and as such is a land tax, and must first be apportioned among the States before being collected; *i. e.*, that the present law is unconstitutional so far as it relates to taxing income

from real estate. As rents and incomes from real estate may mean almost anything nowadays, oil, coal, copper, oats, barley, corn, wheat, oxen and horses, it is evident that such a decision as this practically destroys the usefulness of the law from the point of view of revenue, since it exempts such a large proportion of the total income-producing wealth of the country as to leave little hope that it will be a fruitful tax.

It is held, moreover, that all incomes from municipal and State securities are exempt under the law, on the ground that taxing bonds of such bodies is practically taxing their means of existence, and if that were allowable the federal government might tax these elements of our political system out of existence, which would be a virtual destruction of our federal system—an end which certainly could not be contemplated by our Constitution.

Even if the law as to the rest of the income reached by it were held to be constitutional, these enormous exemptions would practically make the law so distasteful as to lead to its early repeal, and with its disappearance from the statute books would be completed the greatest financial fiasco of our revenue system since its establishment.

Since the above lines were written, the second decision of the Court has been announced, holding that the entire law is unconstitutional, and therefore null and void; thus putting a stop to this method of obtaining federal revenue.

EDMUND J. JAMES.

The Applications of Electricity.

The past twenty years has been a period of rapid advance in the application of electrical science to industrial purposes. Twenty years ago we had no telephone; the electric light was scarcely more than a scientific curiosity; and electric traction in its present sense had not been thought of. Now, when we can talk with our friends a thousand miles away as easily as if they were in the same room, and when the electric cars hurry past our windows every minute or so, it is not easy to recall, with any real appreciation of the facts, the condition of things before the beginning of this last era.

We had then become familiar with the land telegraph and the submarine cable, although the cable even then was not older than the telephone is now, and various applications in the arts had attained a considerable degree of perfection. The real commercial development of electric lighting was made possible by the discovery of the method of making hard carbons from what would otherwise be but a waste

product. Indeed, it is perhaps not too much to say that commercial development in any branch of industry is due to the discovery of methods of utilizing waste products, and the perfection of cheap methods of production. Such discoveries are likely to be accidental. The useful thing or the cheap process is found in the search for something else. This was the case with the Bessemer process for the production of steel, and it may be that a process of producing an illuminating gas of great efficiency has just been discovered in a similar way.

The hard carbon, which can be moulded in any desired shape, seemingly an unimportant thing in itself, possesses properties which cause it to play a very important part in most of our electrical industries. In a particular form, as the result of manufacture from a natural fibre, or from paper, it makes a success of the incandescent lamp. The street-car motor passed through many trials,—periods of trial to its promoters also,—before the hard carbon brush made its commercial success an assured fact. The telephone transmitter, which enables us to talk with ease over a thousand miles of wire, depends for its action upon the little particles of hard carbon, prepared with considerable care and contained within its case.

It is only about seven years since the introduction on any large scale of electric street cars. The mechanism by which the power is applied, although it has passed through many stages of development since then, remains today practically unchanged in general design; but the method of supplying the power to this machine has been the subject of much experiment. The first successful method, used in 1883, was in principle exactly the same as that used now, the overhead wire, with which an under-running trolley, attached to the car, made contact. The objection of the public to the use of overhead wires, however, has always been so great that there have been many attempts to use other methods. Placing the supply wires in an underground conduit is a desirable substitution. The first trial in Boston furnished amusement for one winter to the street boys who delighted in dropping wires and nails into the slot to see the sparks fly; and the peaceful citizen derived some entertainment from the volcanic eruptions of flame during a period of thaw. The "ideal method," the use of some form of battery by which each car is made an independent unit, has been tried again and again. There is no doubt of the possibility of running cars in this way. The trouble is that the imperfections and the vagaries of the secondary battery, or "storage" battery, make it impossible for any

company to pay dividends on a modern basis of fares and traffic. When some of the patient workers in that field—and there are many—have found a primary battery into which we can feed coal or iron, or some other relatively cheap material, as we now feed coal into furnaces, then we may pull down our trolley wires; but not until then, if we want cheap and comfortable electric traction.

The storage battery, although so far unsuccessful, in competition with the "cheap and nasty" trolley, finds its field elsewhere. It will not bear jolting and rough handling in its present form, and for that reason it cannot succeed even in train-lighting. Not to go into the question of its use in house-lighting, and in such work as electro-plating, the propulsion of small boats electrically must be accomplished by means of storage batteries. The city of Philadelphia has recently equipped a small electric launch for use as a harbor police boat, and the uses for boats so propelled will undoubtedly multiply. The advantages of such boats are very evident, and the disadvantages of storage batteries for propulsion on land are of less moment when they are applied to propulsion on water. A use of the storage battery which seems less likely to become generally successful lies in its application to the driving of road vehicles. Here, the question of expense is relatively unimportant, as such carriages have been, so far at least, for pleasure purpose only.

The possibility of the successful transmission of power electrically was demonstrated some years ago. It has been practised on a small scale in many instances, and we are now awaiting with interest the completion of the great undertaking of utilizing a portion of the power of Niagara Falls in this way. There can be no doubt of the success of the industrial city near by which is to be supplied with power from the central plant at the Falls. The commercial success of the plan for transmitting power to Buffalo and other points farther away from the source is less assured, but will depend largely upon the perfection of details. Of course our systems of electric street railways and city lighting are only particular cases of power transmission, although not generally included under that head. The railways have extended rapidly over considerable distances of country roads, and the next development for which we must look in that direction is the application of a similar method of propulsion to certain portions of existing steam roads. The use of electric motive power for such roads would be attended with certain advantages where the traffic is heavy. Electric motors are better adapted to the attainment of high speed than steam locomotives

of the type in universal use, and the distribution of power from a central station is more economical than the use of independent units in cases where the station can be run at nearly its full capacity all the time. The absence of smoke and dirt would contribute greatly to the comfort of passengers, and in some cases to their safety. For these reasons an electric locomotive is to be used in hauling trains through the Baltimore tunnel, and the most recently equipped underground road in London uses electric traction. The displacement of any existing system by a new one is always a slow process, so that it may be some time yet before electric motive power comes into general use on even those portions of our existing railroads which could adopt it to their great advantage.

On some short portions of large railroad systems the change to electric motive power has been made and the line operated with considerable success. The New Haven road operates such a short line in this way, and now the New York Central contemplates equipping electrically the line between Buffalo and Niagara, making use of the power from the Falls.

In all these projects of power transmission over long distances we must look to the alternating current. The application of the direct or continuous current naturally came first as its problems are all easier of solution; but the limit of development in that line seems to have been reached, and its field is comparatively small. For further development in by far the greater number of cases the alternating current is essential. The telephone depends for its operation upon the alternations and variations of current; and with the telephone may be classed such devices as that for reproducing handwriting. For electric welding, although it can be done by a continuous current, the alternating current is best adapted; and the possibilities of electric lighting by alternations of very great rapidity appear marvelous.

Electric welding can be accomplished in two ways. The pieces to be welded may be placed in a powerful electric arc, and softened by the heat of the arc, which thus simply takes the place of the forge; or the parts may be heated by causing the current to pass directly through them. The first process of heating is seldom used for welding, but is largely used in smelting refractory substances, as a very intense heat can be obtained in this way. The second, or Thomson welding process, has not grown so rapidly into use of late years as when first developed, and its present use is chiefly in the manufacture of projectiles. A new application of this process

has recently been developed, however, which may give some indication of its possibilities. Armor plates which have been subjected to the Harvey process have an extremely hard shell of steel on the surface. To place these plates in position they must be drilled at certain points for the bolts; and to do this it is necessary to soften the hard steel surface at those points. It has been very difficult to accomplish this softening by ordinary processes, and almost impossible to avoid softening a greater portion of the plate than is desirable. By applying the terminals from the welding machine at suitable points it is found that the plate can be softened just at the parts where it must be drilled. The current passing through the hard surface coating of steel heats it sufficiently and because of the great mass of metal behind the hard surface, the softening of adjacent parts is avoided.

In telephony, we can scarcely hope for development very much beyond the limits indicated by what has already been accomplished. Some new discoveries may, of course, be made which will make it possible to talk across the Atlantic; but so far as we can tell from our present knowledge, improvements in apparatus will serve only to extend slightly the distance over which conversation can be carried on. Talking through an Atlantic cable is such a different thing and so far beyond the present limits that it can scarcely be hoped for. In the same line of development, however, as it is now possible to transmit speech and handwriting, there seems to be no inherent reason why it should not some time be possible to see at great distances by analogous means.

WILLIAM J. HOPKINS.

An Extensionist's Apologia.

In the *Atlantic Monthly* for March, 1892, there appeared a brief paper from the most courteous, graceful and persuasive pen of Professor George H. Palmer, entitled "Doubts About University Extension." This essay is still regarded as the most effective statement of the case against the movement, or rather, as the most plausible reduction of the claims and importance of the work to a minimum,—almost of absurdity. This will be a sufficient excuse for putting much of what is here said in the form of a revision and critique upon Mr. Palmer's strongest positions. We shall rarely be so rash as to join issue directly with any statement of the eminent teacher of ethics. Rather it is hoped to indicate, that with the natural conservatism of mature years, and from under the protecting shadow of a purely

university life, he has put together a sketch in miniature, not to say in caricature, of the new movement, wherein most of the strokes are slightly out of alignment, while the resulting portrait is hardly recognizable: least of all by the child's sponsors!

And let us look first at the argument which Mr. Palmer regards as final, and to which it is understood that he still holds most firmly. There are not enough competent scholars in America, he tells us, to fill the imperative demand for college professors. Hence none can be spared for the Extension work. It seems to us that two statements are here fused, and confused. Fully prepared and fit men for academic chairs will certainly always be rare. There must be a scarcity of ideally fit men for any high task. Lowell says we have had no great instructors in America, save Agassiz, whom we had to import! It might be added, however, that Agassiz himself did not disdain the "appeal unto Caesar;" and the most inspiring teacher Harvard or New England has yet bred never lived, even for a single year, "cribbed, cabined, and confined" within the walls of a professorial class-room. For those who cannot remember Emerson, Phillips Brooks will illustrate our point. There are men too large to be tied down in university chairs.

It may be said in passing, that Mr. Palmer seems to underestimate enormously the benefit of "popular" lecture courses, and similar work, to those university professors who give them. He regards it (pp. 373) as a rather harmless means of advertisement by which "a professor makes himself known and makes his college known;" harmless, provided "the work demanded is not serious." Such work is hardly to be desired, on such conditions. Indeed it is not conceded that "the men who undertake it are owned elsewhere," viz., by their college! Rather we hold it the most imperative duty of each mature and eminent special investigator, to face about from time to time toward that independent, critical, even potentially hostile audience, the general public (by which his best powers are "owned") and make clear the larger benefits which are drawn, or which he hopes to draw, from his special investigations, in order to bestow them upon mankind. Patin and Ribbeck, Mommsen Von Ranke and Von Holst,—nay, to touch the friendly shield closer,—Jebb and Jowett, Mark Hopkins and James McCosh, have never disdained this duty. If most college professors really find themselves unable to make such a statement, is it because the task is too low, or too high, for their powers?

But if, again, Professor Palmer means that all the youths carefully educated, and eager

to teach, are straightway draughted into the colleges, he brings new tidings, glad if true, to the anxious young graduates of Johns Hopkins, Yale, and even of Harvard. Indeed his contrast with English conditions may be effectively attacked from both sides. There is no over-supply in England of really helpful and valuable men. The chief working officers of the English Extension movement have constantly to refuse tempting offers of far larger salaries within the universities. And in our own country the annual crop of scholarly ambitious young graduates, of both sexes, is certainly out of all proportion to the increase of collegiate chairs.

Furthermore, a new call, especially to a folk of Puritan stock, for earnest workers in a righteous cause, itself produces the workers. If Theodore Winthrop's account of a Massachusetts regiment in the South in 1861 is forgotten, then the College Settlements, and the Young Andover pioneers in Maine, are examples close at hand. Nor is it necessarily a question of adequate compensation. It would be easy to point to the heirs of millions, who to-day carry the heaviest burdens of university organization purely for duty's sake, and return their nominal salary many times over to the treasury of their institutions. The same spirit is common, in less eminent examples. We insist that the only question worth raising is: Ought this task to be undertaken in earnest?

Another division in this triune array of "Doubts" concerns the diverse conditions, as between English and American universities. England, we are reminded, has two great seats of learning, we have 400 widely scattered colleges. Liberal education in the old home has been largely limited to men of means, to one social class,—even to the adherents of an official creed. Our seats of learning are eminently democratic. Any youth of intellectual promise and energy can work his way through college without money. Again, our newspapers and magazines are universally read, while in England, we are told, nothing corresponding to them exists. Hence this new opportunity came as a revelation from an unknown world to the common folk of England, while here no such welcome can be expected.

With some rebate for rhetorical skill in contrast, we grant all this. We hail it, indeed, with devoutest thankfulness. Yes, the conditions are in many ways peculiarly favorable with us. Culture is nearer to the people; we wish it were tenfold more popular. We are entrenched in hundreds of strongholds. This only makes our duty to "go forth into all the world," clearer and closer. And yet, who that knows well our common people, native

and alien, their daily thoughts and interests, will say the work of general education is already adequately done? The thousands who followed Debs into idleness, beggary, or crime, a few months ago, needed no light from history or political economy. In almost any city and manufacturing town this year, and every year, the doctrine is preached, that capital is the deadly foe of labor; that property, inherited or acquired, is a crime. How many men, even of university training, can make effective reply, in defence of human society? The centre of our population is in the Mississippi valley. The teeming millions of laborers read—what? The organ of their union, and perhaps, at best, the daily journal. Do our present readers chance to know well the ordinary newspaper of Chicago, Cincinnati, or St. Louis? Suppose we can induce one poor man (or one rich man) in a thousand, to read thoughtfully, instead, Emerson's essay on "Wealth," or Bryce's "American Commonwealth," or "Waring on Drainage." Is it worth trying?

The *arriereban* of "Doubts" not yet mentioned are "incredulous about the permanent response which our people will make to the education offered." How patriotism or pessimism may dictate a general answer to this question has, perhaps, been sufficiently indicated. But our friendly critic particularizes helpfully.

"If the lectures are kept true to their aim of furnishing solid instruction, can they in the long run be paid for?" If by this is meant, paid for solely from the sale of tickets at the door, as negro minstrel shows and base-ball teams are paid for,—though not always to be sure "in the long run,"—we think not. The Philadelphia experiment indicates, that from this source local centres will just about pay local expenses, but will contribute little to the general administration and preparatory outlay. That is, last year the local centres paid about \$50,000, the immediate cost of the lecture courses they engaged, and a few generous men and women in the metropolis spent at least \$5000 on the task of arranging and preparing for this good work. There is no reason to hope for much better results elsewhere.

But Mr. Palmer, if he meant this as a stone for the prophets, lives in a magnificent crystal palace. A recent number of the Harvard Graduates' Magazine tells us that every undergraduate in Cambridge is paying, at most, \$150 per year, for an education which costs the college \$400. So far is the largest and wealthiest body of students in New England from paying their way. Mr. Palmer is vitally interested in the State Board of Education: the

body in charge of our public schools. What portion of that great outlay is "paid for" by the immediate beneficiaries? Not a penny! The children of Massachusetts are not even allowed the most helpful privilege of owning the text-books they hold in their hands. As it is with the university and public school system, even so permanent adult education, the best preparation for citizenship, will probably never pay for itself as a popular amusement. What is the alternative? Abandonment of the work, or belittling of the need? A better answer is, *Endowment!* Whether temporary or permanent, niggardly or lavish, public or private endowment be better, need not be considered here.

"Will the Extension system, any better than its decayed predecessor, the old lyceum system, resist the demands of popular audiences and keep itself from slipping out of serious instruction into lively and eloquent entertainment?" The contrast indicated in these last words is, again, partly rhetorical. Lively and eloquent entertainment, upon a noble theme, even the mere reading of a few verses, as when Longfellow recited his "Mori-turi Salutamus," or Lowell his "Memorial Odes,"—may leave in the soul the sting of divine discontent with our own limitations: which is the beginning of wisdom. My own determination to know Homer better, and know him entire, was suddenly aroused during a mere "eloquent entertainment" many years ago in Sever Hall. It lasted only forty minutes. It was but a sympathetic rendering of a few hundred verses from the old Greek poet, read by a professor of ethics. It was all so simple and easy that every sophomore thought he could do it as well. It merely waked throbbing life in what had been dead before: that was all. Others who listened shared this experience. Does Mr. Palmer have Doubts whether that was worth doing?

The warning allusion to our "decayed predecessor, the old lyceum system," is familiar, and not without justification. That system was supported by a group of remarkable orators and thinkers, among whom Phillips, Curtis, Garrison, and Beecher were perhaps the favorites. It is no matter of chance, that this group coincided so nearly with the little circle of Anti-slavery leaders, and advocates of other reforms, through the middle decades of our country. The lyceum platform was built in part upon great moral ideas, and became a centre of political and ethical agitation. The chief of those ideas, Freedom and civic rights for all, is now built, instead, into the Constitution itself. Garrison retired, to a great degree, from public life in his later

years. Phillips followed, strange wandering fires, became a Greenbacker, a "labor reformer," a Butlerite. Beecher withdrew, at least for a time, to the pulpit, Curtis to his easy chair.

The great struggle was won, the old bond of unity at an end. The cleverest of later favorites did lack the stern and lofty devotion that made the earlier race so powerful. The desire for cash dividends took possession of some lyceums. The elocutionary mountebank and the professional humorist drew fuller houses for a time: and emptied them at last. Something like this is true of many cities, in the East at any rate. In general it is true, that the old lyceum is dead, and "decayed" offensively before it died. This is an historical warning, which we mean to heed. But we believe the old lecture system decayed because it lost its earnest purpose, or rather because it accomplished its main task, not at all because the people prefer amusement to instruction.

At the present moment, we do not, I think, err on the side of liveliness and eloquence, if errors they be. We are disposed to regard our task as one of serious instruction, indeed. Nor do we disdain the wisdom of Chaucer's Preacher, who

"Gladly wolde *lernen*, and gladly *teche*."

Teach us our errors, by all means. And among our teachers, we discriminate most gratefully the courtesy and fairness, at least in his intentions, of Professor Palmer, from the savage sarcasm and cynical mis-statement of a more recent English critic. Indeed, in the former case there is, we feel, abundant reason to obey the Machiavellian injunction, to treat our enemies as if, they would presently be our friends. If Mr. Palmer will give a single Extension course, for instance one on Christian Ethics at the Paine rooms, or under some such conditions of healthful and courteous hostility, even though he may beforehand, if he likes, regard "the work demanded" as "not serious,"—we are confident he will make one convert, at least.

But in truth, those who attack, and those who defend, the Extension movement are contending but with shadows. The question was decided long ago; was, indeed, under American conditions, never an open one. Our colleges, our scholars, our learning, never had any other master or patron save the people. To that people all allegiance, all possible tribute of loyal act and helpful thought, is due. What little attempt there may have been to build academic or other walls about the best fruits of scholarship science and thought was broken down once

for all by Ralph Waldo Emerson. What he said of riches is equally applicable to the wealth that perisheth, and to the philosopher's hoarded wisdom which abides: "He is the rich man in whom the people are rich, and he is the poor man in whom the people are poor; and how to give all access to the master-pieces of art and nature, is the problem of civilization."

The really great results of scholarship can no more be kept hid, as the property of a little circle of learned specialists, than those of a statesman, an architect, or a poet. Darwin belongs to mankind as fully as Gladstone or Tennyson. A community which takes its chief pride in the Copley Square Art Museum, the Public Library, the Lowell Institute, and in its free schools open day and night, is already fully committed to "Extension:"—and herein Boston is most typically American.

At most it is but a question of form. We believe that adequate endowment, permanence, centralization of management, are the truest economy here as in all other great undertakings; that the personal influence of the living teacher is more vital even than books; that continuous work, the longer the better, is more effectual than any single appeal, however eloquent and inspiring; that those who can be induced to take an active as well as a passive part will always gain most, but that none should be repelled from the communion of knowledge and of thought; that a final opportunity to have our acquirements tested is both a spur and a guiding rein to students young or old. In all this we for the most part only apply, to the work of general culture, the commonplaces of juvenile education. But even for these forms, or for any forms, we do not contend, if experience and discussion shall evolve better. And indeed for the spirit itself we hardly claim to contend, since it is the very air we breathe.

There is one question, of great importance, upon which earnest Extensionists themselves, as well as their critics, are divided: Is this work of adult education a function of the university, or is it essentially an independent task, requiring separate endowment and men of peculiar gifts or training? In Chicago and in Philadelphia, respectively, attempts are being made to work out these two solutions. In any case the provisional acceptance of the English name, "University Extension," does not prejudice the question in the least.

Professor Hart, in his recent interesting paper upon "University Participation" (*Educational Review*, June, 1893, now reprinted in the volume entitled "Studies in American Education"), indicates a solution for the better training of teachers, more particularly gram-

mar school teachers, in the subjects already taught by themselves. When we read further, that in case all universities and colleges recognized by Dr. Hart were to follow his suggestion, only *one-tenth* of this limited professional class could even then be reached—the limited scope of "Participation" need not be emphasized. It is a single minor phase, though a cardinal one, in the larger educational problem.

But Mr. Hart's scathing contempt for any instruction by those "whom no university authorizes to teach its students," his "sighs for a school extension system to teach the instructors," can carry still less conviction, that this great problem is thus summarily settled. Whether all or most of the men and women best fitted to purify and elevate our national and social life are by present processes of fit selection gathered into the academic faculties, need not be discussed. In university teaching itself kosmos has not wholly displaced chaos. There are fossilized instructors clinging to their old textbooks. There are mere lecture courses varied only by semi-annual examinations. There is every variation between these extremes.

Certainly, as Mr. Hart exclaims, "in order to extend a university, we must have a university to extend." But we already have universities galore.—Mr. Norton and others say, even, in overplus! These, and other engines hardly less potent, have educated many thousands of thoughtful, earnest Americans, now found both inside and outside the university faculties. To them should come home before other questions this burning one: What machinery will do most to bring all your culture, all your experience, your whole power in short, to bear for the education and elevation of the entire community? That, and nothing less, is the Extensionist's ideal.

It is even possible that in the work of Extension certain methods, certain definite results will be developed, which will exert a helpful counter-influence upon the university itself. For instance, the present system of election permits a specialist in science to carry away his Harvard diploma in "arts" without having ever heard the name of Homer or Dante, Phidias or Raphael. His brother, a lover of literature, may never have known anything of modern science, of the urgent political and social problems about us, of his own country's history. May not such liberally educated men as these themselves come to demand at least some general outline, some practical introduction, which may give them a rational interest in the pursuits and discoveries of other university-bred men?

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON.

From Old Authors.

From John Lyly.

[John Lyly was born about 1544, and died about 1600. Little else is known of his life. It is likely that he was connected with people of aristocratic birth, and many foolish legends about him are due to a confusing of him with other men of the same name. He wrote "Cupid with My Campaspe Played," the little lyric known to everybody. His famous prose work, "Euphues," was the most popular book of the period. Its fantastic, indirect, extravagant style became the model for courtly speech. A very good illustration of this style is found in the extract quoted below. The title of the book gave a new word to the English language, *euphuism*.]

TRIBUTE TO QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Touching the beauty of this Prince, her countenance, her personage, her majesty, I cannot think that it may be sufficiently commended, when it cannot be too much marvelled at: so that I am constrained to say as Praxiteles did, when he began to paint Venus and her son, who doubted whether the world could afford colors good enough for two such fair faces, and I whether our tongue can yield words to blaze that beauty, the perfection whereof none can imagine, which seeing it is so, I must do like those that want a clear sight, who being not able to discern the sun in the sky are enforced to behold it in the water. Zeuxis having before him fifty fair virgins of Sparta whereby to draw one amiable Venus, said, that fifty more fairer than those could not minister sufficient beauty to show the goddess of beauty, therefore being in despair either by art to shadow her, or by imagination to comprehend her, he drew in a table, a fair temple, the gates open, and Venus going in, so as nothing could be perceived but her back, wherein he used such cunning, that Appelles himself seeing this work, wished that Venus would turn her face, saying that if it were in all parts agreeable to the back, he would become apprentice to Zeuxis, and slave to Venus. In the like manner fareth it with me, and for having all the ladies in Italy, more than fifty hundred, whereby to color Elizabeth, I must say with Zeuxis, that as many more will not suffice; and, therefore, in as great an agony paint her court with her back towards you, for that I cannot by art portray her beauty, wherein though I want the skill to do it as Zeuxis did, yet viewing it narrowly, and comparing it wisely, you all will say that if her face be answerable to her back, you will like my handicraft, and become her handmaids. In the mean season I leave you gazing until she turn her face, imagining her to be such a one as nature framed to that end, that no art should imitate, wherein she hath proved herself to be exquisite, and painters to be apes.

This beautiful mould when I beheld to be endued, with chastity, temperance, mildness, and all other good gifts of nature (as hereafter shall appear); when I saw her to surpass all in beauty, and yet a virgin; to excel all in piety, and yet a *prince*; to be inferior to none in all the lineaments of the body, and yet superior to everyone in all gifts of the mind, I began thus to pray, that as she hath lived forty years a virgin in great majesty, so she may live fourscore years a mother, with great joy, that as with her we have long time had peace and plenty, so by her we may ever have quietness and abundance, wishing this even from the bottom of a heart that wisheth well to England, though feareth ill, that either the world may end before she die, or she live to see her children's children in the world; otherwise, how tickle their state is that now triumph, upon what a twist they hang that now are in honor, they that live shall see which I to think on, sigh. But God for His mercy's sake, Christ for His merit's sake, the Holy Ghost for His name's sake, grant to that realm, comfort without any ill chance, and the Prince they have without any other change, that the longer she liveth the sweeter she may smell, like the bird Ibis, that she may be triumphant in victories like the palm tree, fruitful in her age like the vine, in all ages prosperous, to all men gracious, in all places glorious; so that there may be no end of her praise until the end of all flesh.

Thus did I often talk with myself, and wish with my whole soul.

What should I talk of her sharp wit, excellent wisdom, exquisite learning, and all other qualities of mind, wherein she seemeth so far to excel those that have been accounted singular, as the learned have surpassed those that have been thought simple.

Her goodly zeal to learning, with her great skill, hath been so manifestly approved, that I cannot tell whether she deserve more honor for her knowledge, or admiration for her courtesy, who, in great pomp, hath twice directed her Progress unto the Universities, with no less joy to the students than glory to her state. Where, after long and solemn disputations in Law, Physic and Divinity, not as one wearied with scholars' arguments, but wedded to their orations, when every one feared to offend in length, she in her own person, with no less praise to her Majesty than delight to her subjects, with a wise and learned conclusion, both gave them thanks and put self to pains. O noble pattern of princely mind, not like to the kings of Persia, who in their progresses did nothing else but cut sticks to drive away the time, nor like the delicate lives of the Sybarites, who would not admit any art to be

exercised within their city that might make the least noise. Her wit so sharp that if I should repeat the apt answers, the subtle questions, the fine speeches, the pithy sentences which on the sudden she hath uttered, they would rather breathe admiration than credit. But such are the gifts that the living God hath induced her withal, that look in what art or language, wit or learning, virtue or beauty, anyone hath particularly excelled most, she only hath generally exceeded every one in all, insomuch that there is nothing to be added, that either man could wish in a woman, or God doth give to a creature.

Two and twenty years hath she borne the sword with such justice, that neither offenders could complain of rigour, nor the innocent of wrong, yet so tempered with mercy, as malefactors have been sometimes pardoned upon hope of grace, and the injured requited to ease their grief, insomuch that in the whole course of her glorious reign, it could never be said, that either the poor were oppressed without remedy, or the guilty repressed without cause, bearing this engraven in her noble heart, that justice without mercy were extreme injury, and pity without equity plain partiality, and that it is as great tyranny not to mitigate laws, as iniquity to break them.

But whither do I wade, ladies, as one forgetting himself, thinking to sound the depth of her virtues with a few fathoms, when there is no bottom: for I know not how it cometh to pass, that being in this labyrinth, I may sooner lose myself than find the end?

Behold, ladies, in this glass a Queen, a woman, a virgin in all the gifts of the body, in all graces of the mind, in all perfection of either, so far to excel all men, that I know not whether I may think the place too bad for her to dwell among men.

To talk of other things in that court, were to bring eggs after apples, or after the setting out of the sun, to tell a tale of a shadow.

But this I say, that all offices are looked to with great care, that virtue is embraced of all, vice hated, religion daily increased, manners reformed, that whoso seeth the place there, will think it rather a church for divine service, than a court for princes' delight.

This is the glass, ladies, wherein I would have you gaze, wherein I took my whole delight, imitate the ladies in England, amend your manners, rub out the wrinkles of the mind, and be not curious about the weams in the face. As for their Elizabeth, since you can neither sufficiently marvel at her, nor I praise her, let us all pray for her, which is the only duty we can perform, and the greatest that we can proffer.

From William Drummond.

[William Drummond, better known as Drummond of Hawthornden, was born in 1585, and died in 1649. He was a prolific writer in both prose and verse. The best of his poetry is characterized by a stately solemnity, as anyone may observe who reads the sonnet on "The Baptist," quoted below. Drummond is best known for his "Conversations with Ben Jonson," a book which throws much light upon the disposition of "rare Ben."]

MADRIGAL.

This world a hunting is,
The prey poor man, the Nimrod fierce is Death;
His speedy greyhounds are
Lust, sickness, envy, care,
Strife that ne'er falls amiss,
With all those ills which haunt us while we breathe.
Now, if by chance we fly
Of these the eager chase,
Old age with stealing pace
Casts up his nets, and there we panting die.

LIFE.

This life, which seems so fair,
Is like a bubble blown up in the air
By sporting children's breath,
Who chase it everywhere
And strive who can most motion it bequeath.
And though it sometimes seem of its own might
Like to an eye of gold to be fix'd there,
And firm to hover in that empty height,
That only is because it is so light.
—But in that pomp it doth not long appear;
For when 'tis most admired, in a thought,
Because it erst was nought, it turns to nought.

JOHN THE BAPTIST.

The last and greatest Herald of Heaven's King,
Girt with rough skins, hies to the deserts wild,
Among that savage brood the woods forth bring,
Which he more harmless found than man, and mild.
His food was locusts, and what there doth spring,
With honey that from virgin hives distill'd;
Parch'd body, hollow eyes, some uncouth thing
Made him appear, long since from earth exiled.
There burst he forth: All ye whose hopes rely
On God, with me amidst these deserts mourn,
Repent, repent, and from old errors turn!
—Who listen'd to his voice, obey'd his cry?
Only the echoes, which he made relent,
Rung from their flinty caves, Repent! Repent!

Books.

LABOR AND THE POPULAR WELFARE. By W. H. Mallock. Pp. xi, 336. London: Adam and Charles Black. 1893.

THE EVOLUTION OF INDUSTRY. By Henry Dyer. Pp. xv, 307. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1895.

In form, size and subject matter the above works resemble each other closely, notwithstanding their different titles. Both are contributions to the literature of the social problem, attempting to show how the present system of distribution may be modified in the interest of the laboring class without destroying the efficiency of the present system of production. Both base their suggestions upon an analysis of the factors which have contributed to the industrial prosperity of Great Britain during the last hundred years, and an attempt to weigh impartially the importance of each one of these factors. Both of them are written in a popular style by Englishmen for English readers. And finally, both arrive at conclusions, on the whole, conservative, and both recommend education as the only certain road to social reform. Aside from their similar purpose and formal similarity in conclusion, the two books are as unlike as possible. Mr. Mallock writes as an uncompromising enemy to socialism and socialistic agitation. He is a thorough believer in individualism and he states his conclusions with confidence. Moreover, he has given his own versatile thought to the problem which he discusses, and his work deserves to rank as a contribution, concerning the value of which opinions will of course differ, to economic literature. On the other hand Mr. Dyer is anti-individualistic. Conservative too, in a way, he yet looks to the socialization of industry as the goal toward which we are and should be tending. Perceiving, only too clearly, the difficulty of the questions involved, his opinions are stated in a tentative way. They have the form of provisional and half-hearted generalizations, and when compared with Mr. Mallock's virile convictions, certainly lack force. Finally, Mr. Dyer does not profess to have thrown new light upon the questions he considers; his endeavor has been rather to reflect the light we already possess into corners where it has not yet penetrated. It is these differences in the two books, rather than their points of resemblance, which makes a comparison of them instructive.

Labor and the Popular Welfare falls into four parts. In the first two the "divisible wealth

of the United Kingdom" and "the chief factor in its production" are discussed. The third is a polemical attack directed against the socialistic notion that labor aided by natural forces creates all wealth, and in the last the "reasonable hopes of labor" are foreshadowed. The central thought in Mr. Mallock's analysis is that, while the conventional land, labor and capital are indispensable factors in the production of wealth, yet the most important factor under modern conditions is a fourth element, which he calls "ability, or the faculty which directs" industry. The "immense majority of the inhabitants of Great Britain, produce by their labor only one-third of the income of the country," while the "small handful of men" who serve as the captains of industry, "produce little less than two-thirds." To prove this thesis the author has recourse to statistics. He finds that in 1790 the *per capita* income of Englishmen was fourteen pounds. This he is willing to ascribe entirely to crude labor. In 1890 it is said to have increased to thirty-two pounds. To what is this enormous addition to the productive power of the country due? Mr. Mallock answers with assurance, "ability." This "ability" he assumes to belong to the small handful of men already mentioned, and from this follows his conclusion. But it may be said that *invention* has been an even more important factor in industrial development than "directing ability." Moreover, the socialists assert that inventions are social products, and not at all the creations of individuals. Mr. Mallock meets this possible criticism with a flat denial. Inventions, in his opinion, are not "social products." They are discoveries due to the chance genius of individuals, and examples are multiplied in support of this view.

Enough has been said to make clear Mr. Mallock's position as regards the factors in the production of wealth. We may now turn to his conclusions as they affect the labor problem. In the first place, it is evident that from his point of view there is nothing inherently unjust in our present system of distribution. The laborers are not despoiled by their employers. On the contrary, under ordinary circumstances, they force "ability" to return to them not only what they produce, but also a part of what it produces. Mallock's advice to the laboring class then is to go slow and strive to become more capable members of the industrial world, rather than to secure a greater remuneration for their present services. Under the régime of universal suffrage, he thinks, there is imminent danger that laborers will use their political power to deprive "ability" of that fair

wage which is its due, and in this way will cut into the national dividend out of which all must be paid. As stated by himself, Mr. Mallock's argument is less paradoxical than it is made to appear here. The logical skeleton I have depicted is clothed by him in a fine raiment of facts, figures and metaphor, which conceals the looseness of its joints. The one erroneous assumption upon which the whole structure rests is obvious enough. This is the identification of the abstractions "labor" and "ability" with "laborers" on the one hand, and "capitalists" on the other. As a matter of fact in our industrial world labor and ability are never dissociated. There is no laborer so unskilled that he does not employ some ability in directing his efforts. For this reason no statement in regard to the prominent part played by "ability" in production throws a very definite light upon the share which "laborers" should receive out of the product. But we need not dwell upon this point. Mr. Mallock's book contains much that is original and suggestive, and its errors, considering the class to which it appeals, are not calculated to do any serious harm.

If after having perused *Labor and the Popular Welfare* the reader feels any uneasiness, he may turn to the *Evolution of Industry* as a certain antidote. As the title indicates, the primary purpose of this book is to show how different types of industrial organization have followed each other as more and more refined industrial processes have displaced the cruder methods of primitive times. The problem of our day, Dyer says, is "to find a social organization corresponding to the modern conditions of production, as the social organization of the Middle Ages corresponded with the simple conditions of industry then existing. To solve this problem satisfactorily we must see clearly what are the characteristics of our modern system of production. These are described in the first six of the twelve chapters of the book before us. Since the beginning of the century capitalistic production has passed through three phases. At first the employés were also the capitalists and industrial undertakings were limited by the resources of individuals. In the second stage, corporations with limited liabilities came into prominence and their operations were limited only by the extent of the social capital in existence. Now at length we are entering upon the third stage, in which trusts and monopolies on the one hand and co-operative undertakings on the other are crowding individual enterprise into a very small corner of the industrial field. Going along step by step with this development, trade unions have sprung up and grown until, at present, capital and labor

stand squarely and consciously opposed to each other. Chaotic production, however, is not the goal of our industrial evolution. While individualism is finding its highest development in trusts and monopolies, socialism is becoming an important factor through co-operative enterprise, and municipal and State undertakings. What is needed now, the author thinks, is a complete industrial integration which shall have as its goal the "production of noble, healthy men and women," and not the production of cheap commodities. In the author's opinion, "the chief mechanism by which this integration will be performed will be, neither the multiplication of legislative enactments, nor the storm and confusion of a revolution, but the agencies already at work, namely, trade unions, co-operation in its various forms, voluntary, municipal, and State; and above all, socialized individualism, which will link them together and cause them to produce the highest social welfare."

The great trouble with our present organization is that its goal is cheapness. The interests of men as producers are nothing in the scale against the interests of society as a consumer. All of this must be changed. The artistic element in production must be emphasized, individuality must be carefully fostered and every occupation must be raised to the dignity of a profession. The "ability," about which Mr. Mallock has so much to say, must be made the common inheritance of the race and it must be associated with an ideal of life which will regard moderate comforts together with the opportunity for rendering social service as a sufficient compensation. Opposed to this ideal is the bug-bear "overpopulation." This Mr. Dyer confesses. He says freely that the sterilization of the unfit is one of the most important as it is probably one of the most difficult of the problems that society has to face. And yet he thinks with the realization of his economic reforms, "the population question might be left to settle itself, subject to no influences save an enlightened public opinion and a determination that the selfishness of the individual should never be allowed to interfere with the welfare of the community."

One of the most striking characteristics of the book is the attempt the author makes to establish a connection between sociological and biological phenomena. Thus he defends his demand that no one who does not render social service shall be tolerated in society on the biological ground that inactivity leads inevitably to degeneration and is as bad for the individual as for society. Unlike many writers, however, he perceives the limitations

to which such analogies are necessarily liable. Human reason has come in to displace the physical struggle for existence and survival of the fittest of the biological world, and to substitute a conscious evolution guided by notions of social duty.

These are some of the many suggestive ideas contained in the *Evolution of Industry*. Few readers, it is safe to say, will agree with all the opinions expressed by the author as to the goal toward which our society is tending, and yet no one can lay down the book without having felt his thought quickened and his mind refreshed by the tone of healthy optimism which pervades it. It is an appeal to citizens of all lands to adopt a higher ideal of civic duty, and at the same time it is an eloquent endorsement of the contention of University Extension that universal education offers the only real solution of our social difficulties.

HENRY R. SEAGER.

Notes.

"Adoption and Amendment of Constitutions in Europe and America" (Macmillan & Co.) is the title which Professor Charles D. Hazen gives to his translation of Dr. Charles Borgeaud's "Etablissement et Révision des Constitutions en Amérique et Europe." It was with this work that the author in 1892 made a successful competition for the *Prix Rossi*, awarded by the Faculty of Law of the University of Paris. It is an historical study of the growth and character of written constitutions, of royal charters, and particularly of the democratic constitutions of the United States, France and Switzerland. The author insists upon the fact that his book is an historical examination and in no sense a treatise designed to exploit any particular theory or to advocate any particular system. The English translation has an introduction by Dr. John M. Vincent of the Johns Hopkins University, in which Dr. Vincent says that "the treatment is not a mere textual codification of the most recent articles of amendment in the constitutions of the civilized world, but is an exhibit of the historical development of each." Price \$2.00.

From Longman's Green & Co. we have received "A Primer of Evolution" by Edward Clodd. This is an abridgment of the author's more ambitious work, the "Story of Creation." A phrase from the author's dedication to Mr. Huxley is significant as giving a hint of his purpose in his own work; he herein states his belief that the "permanence" of Huxley's writings consists in the application of the materials of science "to the construction of an all-embracing philosophy of life." The same purpose animates Mr. Clodd's modest little "primer" of 186 pages. Half of the book is purely descriptive of the material universe and of the geology and present life-forms of the earth. The second half explains the growth of the universe, and the origin and development of life by the theory of evolution. Then a wide scope is given to the whole discussion by the last chapter on "Social Evolution" in which is discussed the Evolution of Mind, of Society, of Language and the Arts, of Morals, and of Theology.

The Home Book Company, of New York, has published a pocket edition of "The Scarlet Letter," for 25 cents.

Macmillan & Co. have just published "John Dalton and the Rise of Modern Chemistry," by Sir Henry E. Roscoe, who is the editor of "The Century Science Series," of which this volume is the first. If the subsequent books in the series are as well done as this, they will prove a valuable addition to biographical literature. Sir Henry Roscoe recognizes that his subject is too interesting a personality to be treated merely as a scientist, and so while Dalton's inestimable contributions to chemistry are clearly explained, we are not denied numerous glimpses of the sturdy individuality of the old Quaker, who "never had time to get married," who when a tedious paper was being read before the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, of which he was president, said in a loud whisper, "This is a very interesting paper, for those who take any interest in it," and who when reproved by a friend for a brusque remark to the King of England, replied, "But what can you say to sic like fowk?" The price of the book is \$1.25.

"Four Years of Novel Reading," is the title of a book edited by Dr. Richard G. Moulton, and published by D. C. Heath & Co., of Boston. The sub-title of the book is "An account of an Experiment in Popularizing the Study of Fiction," and gives a suggestion of the contents of the volume. It relates how in Backworth, a northeastern village of England, there was established under the supervision of the University Extension Society, a union whose purpose it has been to make a systematic and thoughtful study of fiction. Twenty-five novels were read and carefully analyzed according to suggestions offered by various scholars, among whom was Professor Moulton himself. As showing some results of this study, four representative essays from members of the union are published. The book is prefaced with a virile essay by Professor Moulton, in which a strong plea is made for the study of fiction as an interpretation of life.

"An Experiment in Altruism," a novel by Elizabeth Hastings, is evidently written in an earnest spirit. The "Experiment" does not result in a perfect solution of all life's problems and the conclusion is in the tone of one who has been made sad but not hopeless by experience. The last words of the book are worthy to be laid close to heart. "The one command in regard to our neighbor is not obscure. And our foreboding lest our faith in God shall escape us seems futile, inasmuch as we can not escape our faith." Macmillan & Co. Price, 75 cents.

From the American Book Company we have a new edition of Cicero's "Cato Maior de Senectute," edited by Professor Frank Ernest Rockwood, of Bucknell University. The book is copiously supplied with notes, textual and historical, and is prefaced with an introduction of nearly forty pages, containing a life of Cicero, an analysis of his literary works, and a special discussion of the "De Senectute." The book is very prettily bound in green cloth with gilt lettering. Price, 90c.

The American Book Company adds two new volumes to its *Eclectic English Classic* series. One is De Foe's "History of the Plague in London," edited with introduction and notes and two maps of London; the other consists of three of Webster's orations, "Bunker Hill Monument," "The Character of Washington," and the "Landing at Plymouth"; this latter volume, like De Foe's is supplied with introduction and notes. The De Foe is priced at 40 cents, the Webster at 20 cents.

Mr. Daniel Burleigh Parkhurst, who conducts sketching classes in the summer, has published at Orange, N. J., his second revised edition of "Sketching from Nature," a hand-book of technical advice and suggestions to students of landscape sketching.

University Extension News and Announcements.

Summer Meeting of 1895.

Over seventy persons had enrolled for the Summer Meeting before May 25, an increase over the enrollment at that time in any preceding year.

Tickets of admission for the Inaugural Lecture by Professor Woodrow Wilson are now ready and may be had on application at the University Extension office. The experience of last year indicates that the library will be taxed to its utmost capacity to accommodate the students and their friends who wish to be present at the inauguration of the meeting. Professor Wilson's subject is Democracy.

It is hoped that arrangements can be made for the recreation of Summer Meeting students by the provision of lawn tennis courts and other suitable amusements near the university buildings.

Teachers who have a vacation of two months will usually find it most profitable to spend one month in physical recreation and complete rest from mental work, the other in intellectual recreation and advancement. The mental strain of the regular duties of the school year should not be so heavy as to necessitate two months of complete idleness. Wherever they are, something is wrong either with the school system or with the teacher. The generosity of the public in giving to teachers a somewhat longer holiday than is enjoyed by persons of other vocations rests upon and is justified by the expectation that a considerable part of the vacation is to be utilized in such study as is absolutely essential to permanent success in teaching and yet is impracticable during the school year. Professor A. B. Hart, who is not reckoned among the enthusiastic supporters of University Extension, still has a good word to say for the summer school as an opportunity to teachers. The Philadelphia Summer Meeting lasts exactly four weeks; it begins immediately on the close of the school year, thus giving time for a month's holiday before the schools open in September; and it provides both professional courses and courses of wide range in Literature, History, Politics, and Science. Considering the amount, the variety, and the character of its work, the registration fee of fifteen dollars is probably lower than that of any other summer school. Certainly no stronger corps of lecturers have ever been associated in a summer gathering here or abroad.

In addition to the lectures already announced for the Department of Literature and History (Greek year), arrangements have been made for two lectures by Dr. Ernst Riess, a graduate of the University of Bonn and a scholar of high standing. Dr. Riess has lived for one year in England and is now expecting to enter upon an academic career in this country. The subject in which he is especially interested and upon which he has made some notable contributions to German periodicals is Superstition in ancient and modern nations. His Summer Meeting lectures will treat Greek Beliefs concerning the Future Life, tracing their growth from the Homeric conceptions through the popular beliefs of the fifth and fourth centuries B. C. to the final victory of Christianity. Dr. Riess' lectures will thus supplement those of Professor Wright on The Every-Day Religion of the Greeks, and those of Professor Hammond on Greek Philosophy.

The special courses in Psychology offer features which are of interest to physicians as well as to teachers. Several letters have been received indicating an intention on the part of practising physicians to attend those courses. Such strides have been made in the study of physiological psychology in recent years that graduates of the best medical schools have much to learn from the work now offered by its instructors. It is doubtful if any medical school even yet offers instruction to its students on the subjects treated in Dr. Newbold's seminar on abnormal psychology and Dr. Witmer's laboratory courses. A large enrollment of physicians, medical students and teachers would be gratifying as a distinct encouragement to those who hope to see every department of the Summer Meeting maintain the highest scientific standing.

The roster has been so arranged that it will be possible for any student to attend all of the lectures of any one department, e. g., all the lectures in the Department of Literature and History, or all of the lectures and laboratory courses in Biology. Those who have inclusive tickets may choose their courses from all departments, but, since it is obviously impossible to give a separate hour to each of the twenty-five daily lectures when there are but four or at most six periods available each day, there will be unavoidable conflicts between the different departments. From the printed roster students will be able to make up their own daily schedule, selecting such courses as seem to them most attractive and profitable.

The Association Local Centre Scholarship of twenty-five dollars has been awarded on competition, confined to the students of that centre, to Mrs. Edmund Stirling, an award that will be most satisfactory alike to the Summer Meeting, to the centre, and to the competitors. Mrs. Stirling has registered in the Department of Civics and Politics.

The syllabus on Greek Life and Thought containing outlines of the fifty-five lectures to be delivered in the Department of Literature and History has been highly praised by Greek specialists and others. The outline of reading given in connection with Professor Perrin's course is especially valuable. For the present the syllabus is sent free to those who expect to attend the Summer Meeting.

Lend a Hand for June contains an excellent article on Civics and Politics at the University Extension Summer Meeting by Mr. Stockton Axson. The need for sound instruction in politics and the high ideal of the University Extension Society in its efforts to contribute to such instruction have never been more clearly set forth. It is needless to say that the editor of *Lend a Hand*, Dr. Edward Everett Hale, the veteran social reformer, is in hearty and practical sympathy with those ideals.

Professor Jenks, who as a lecturer in the Department of Economics last year, connects the Summer Meeting of Economics in 1894 with that of Politics in 1895, surpasses nearly all his fellow-teachers of political science in his knowledge of practical legislation. His magazine articles on corrupt practices, legislation and other phases of current political reform, give him a front rank as a writer on these topics and his active influence on legislation at Indianapolis and Albany has inspired the respect of even the politicians. His subject, Politics in the Modern Democracy, is one that will give ample opportunity for the use of his wide practical knowledge and keen insight.

Professor D'Ooge, who lectures on the History of Greek Sculpture from one of the most attractive features of the Department of Literature and History, has recently been seriously ill, but his recovery is so far advanced that he hopes to be able to meet his engagement for the Summer Meeting. The illustrations which are to accompany his lectures have already been prepared.

Professor Moulton's former students in Philadelphia and neighboring towns should not overlook the fact that he is to lecture twice daily during the second week of the Summer Meeting (July 8-12); once at 9 a. m. and again at 8 p. m. The evenings are given to interpretative recitals from Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. No lecturer has been greeted by larger or more enthusiastic audiences than those which faced Mr. Moulton in the first years of University Extension in America, and there is no more welcome lecturer at the summer gatherings in Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh. He should be greeted by an earnest and numerous body of students in the Philadelphia meeting.

The Edinburgh Summer Meeting is famous for its scientific excursions led by such splendid enthusiasts as Professor Giddes, Mr. Thomson and Mr. Herbertson. Formerly associated with these men and equally ardent in his enthusiasm for direct contact between students and out-of-door nature was Dr. J. M. Macfarlane, now Professor of Botany in the University of Pennsylvania. His lectures in the Summer Meeting are on Systematic Botany, and they will be supplemented by field excursions and practical demonstrations in the Botanical Garden and laboratory. The laboratory fee of two dollars covers the special expense of these courses and of the laboratory work given by Professor Wilson, Professor Cope, Professor Kingsley and Mrs. Wilson.

OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS.



Eight new Leaflets have been added to the series. No. 48, *Bradford's Memoir of Elder Brewster*; 49, *Bradford's First Dialogue*; 50, *Winthrop's "Conclusions for the Plantation in New England"*; 51, *"New England's First Fruits," 1643*; 52, *John Eliot's "Indian Grammar Begun"*; 53, *John Cotton's "God's Promise to His Plantation"*; 54, *Letters of Roger Williams to Winthrop*; 55, *Thomas Hooker's "Way of the Churches of New England."*

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